

Interactive community responses to disturbance in streams: disturbance history moderates the influence of disturbance types

Eveleens, R. A., McIntosh, A. R.* and Warburton, H. J.

School of Biological Sciences, University of Canterbury, Private Bag 4800, Christchurch
8140, New Zealand

*correspondence: angus.mcintosh@canterbury.ac.nz

Accepted for publication as:

Eveleens, R. A., McIntosh, A. R. and Warburton, H. J. (2019) Interactive community responses to disturbance in streams: disturbance history moderates the influence of disturbance types. *Oikos*

doi: 10.1111/oik.05868.

Abstract

Both disturbance history and disturbance type act to structure communities through selecting for particular species traits but they may also interact. For example, flooding selects for species with flood-resistant traits in streams, but those traits could make communities susceptible to other disturbances and so could cause shifts in community composition due to anthropogenic climate change. To better understand the interactive influences of disturbance history and type on community composition, we investigated the response of macroinvertebrate communities to disturbance using in-stream channels. Using a split-plot design, individual channels in five ‘stable’ streams and five ‘frequently disturbed’ streams (disturbance history) were subject to different disturbance type treatments (flooding, drying and a control). Disturbance type independently drove effects on species diversity, but all other effects of disturbance type depended on disturbance history. In particular, the interaction of disturbance type and history determined overall community response. Both disturbance types tested produced similar community responses in frequently disturbed streams, including changes in community composition and alterations to the abundance of less mobile taxa, but low-flow had a significantly greater effect in stable streams. Macroinvertebrate drift was greatest in the rock-rolling treatments and significantly less in the low-flow treatment for both disturbance histories. Therefore, disturbance history moderated the effects of disturbance type and determined the mechanism of community response by determining how well species were adapted to disturbance. This outcome suggests that previous disturbances strongly influence how vulnerable communities are to changes in disturbance, and so should be considered when predicting how changes in disturbance regimes will affect future community composition.

Keywords

Disturbance, streams, channel experiment, resistance, resilience, species traits, drying, flooding, community composition

Introduction

Many ecosystems face rapid shifts in environmental conditions (IPCC 2014, Mantyka-Pringle et al. 2014, Parmesan 2006). For example, climate change is predicted to increase the frequency of extreme events (Ledger and Milner 2015, Rahmstorf and Coumou 2011), and accelerate shifts in disturbance regimes (e.g. Tockner et al. 2010). Moreover, global change is also expected to increase the introduction of novel disturbances (Oki and Kanae 2006, Seidl et al. 2016), potentially modifying communities in unpredictable ways (e.g. Bogan and Lytle 2011, Occhipinti-Ambrogi 2007). Such changes to disturbance regimes are likely to have far-reaching implications for community assembly because disturbance is a key driver of composition (Lepori and Malmqvist 2009, Resh et al. 1988, Ricklefs 2004). Although current knowledge highlights disturbance as an important influence on community structure, understanding how the context of previous disturbance influences the ability of communities to respond to novel disturbances is lacking.

Disturbance refers to any event that changes biotic or abiotic conditions and results in the alteration of community structure or dynamics (Donohue et al. 2016). Importantly, disturbances directly shape communities through filtering communities for species with specific tolerance traits (Cornwell and Ackerly 2009, Death and Zimmermann 2005, Jacobsen and Dangles 2012). Species lacking such traits are unlikely to persist within frequently disturbed communities (Lebrija-Trejos et al. 2010, Poff 1997), so disturbance filters which species are able to colonize or persist (Vorste et al. 2016). Disturbance also introduces stochasticity by resetting communities and creating opportunities for species to

gain competitive advantages from recolonising habitats prior to others (Chase 2003, Death 2008). Finally, disturbance can also indirectly alter communities through mediating the effects of other processes, including biotic interactions (Chase 2007, Lepori and Malmqvist 2009, Menge and Sutherland 1987, Nyström and McIntosh 2003).

Different types of disturbance can also have contrasting influences on communities because they operate through different underlying mechanisms (Glasby and Underwood 1996, Lake 2000, Piggott et al. 2012). Pulse disturbances are sharply delineated, high-intensity, short-duration events, whereas press disturbances act on communities over longer time periods (Lake 2000). In streams, for example, flooding is a pulse disturbance associated with sudden displacement of individuals and resources leading to rapid shifts in community structure (Death 2008), whereas low-flow is a press disturbance leading to shifts in communities caused by changes in habitat size, physiochemical conditions and biotic interactions over longer time periods (Dewson et al. 2007). It can be expected that communities will display contrasting responses to different types of disturbance due to the dissimilar drivers.

Disturbance-driven selection for species traits also means that variation in how different types of disturbance affect communities will strongly influence the morphological and life-history characteristics of species. This selection allows species to respond to the type of disturbance they experience (Allison and Martiny 2008, Catford and Jansson 2014, Wootton et al. 1996), and over time the disturbance regime acting on a particular habitat can act as a template to facilitate the evolution of traits that enable species to persist within that location (the 'habitat template of disturbance'; Townsend et al. 1997). Well-adapted species can persist following disturbance through either being resistant or resilient to disturbance events (Allison and Martiny 2008, Lake 2013, Robson et al. 2011). 'Resistance' is the ability to withstand disturbance and 'resilience' is the

ability to recover following disturbance (Pimm 1984), but both are connected to community stability (Donohue et al. 2013). For example, streamlined body shapes and the use of flow refugia allow aquatic macroinvertebrate species to resist flooding disturbances, while high vagility and rapid reproduction allow species to recolonise habitats quickly and so be more resilient to disturbance (Holomuzki and Biggs 2000), with both responses contributing to overall ability of communities to persist following disturbance ('ecological resilience'; Nimmo et al. 2015). Importantly, the combination of traits that confer resistance and resilience to disturbance can differ across disturbance types (Ledger et al. 2011, Lytle and Poff 2004). Therefore, species adapted to one type of disturbance may not be able to persist if subjected to other types of disturbance.

In addition to disturbance type, disturbance frequency or the pattern of disturbances experienced over time (disturbance history) also strongly influences communities (Jacobsen and Dangles 2012, McCabe and Gotelli 2000, Ward 1998). Increased disturbance frequency not only increases the effect of disturbances on communities and alters community interactions (Death 1996, Peckarsky et al. 2015), but also creates stronger selection for disturbance-adapted traits (Cornwell and Ackerly 2009, Lytle and Poff 2004, Townsend and Hildrew 1994). Thus, frequently disturbed communities should be better able to respond to types of disturbance they regularly experience compared to communities with benign environmental conditions.

Communities subject to frequent disturbances may be less affected by novel types of disturbance if their history of previous disturbance results in selection for traits suited to variable environmental conditions (e.g. high mobility, rapid reproduction; Holomuzki and Biggs 2000), and more strongly filtered communities (Fattorini and Halle 2004). However, the opposite could also be true depending on how novel new disturbances are and the generality of disturbance responses across taxa (Vinebrooke et al. 2004). Additionally, the

lower species diversity and reduced complexity often associated with frequently disturbed communities may also reduce community stability over longer time periods (Bogan et al. 2015, Death and Winterbourn 1995, Gray et al. 2006), potentially undermining the ability of frequently disturbed communities to withstand novel disturbances (Didham et al. 2005). The response of communities to disturbance is also influenced by the interaction of disturbance history with other community structuring processes (Chase 2007, Peckarsky et al. 2015, Thompson and Townsend 2006), and trade-offs between biotic processes and disturbance, such as species displaying different trait combinations as the strength of selection for disturbance-adapted traits varies (Chase 2007, Wellborn et al. 1996). For example, disturbance commonly selects for increased mobility, while predation selects for physical defences (Wellborn et al. 1996, Wootton et al. 1996). Thus, communities experiencing one type of disturbance may not have appropriate traits to respond to other, unfamiliar, disturbance types. Furthermore, because traits cannot respond to rapid or short-term changes in disturbance or other community processes (Lytle et al. 2008), changes in disturbance type could severely affect communities with a history of experiencing different types of disturbance. Therefore, there are many reasons to expect disturbance history to interact with disturbance type.

We carried out an experiment to investigate how disturbance history influenced the response of stream communities to different types of disturbance. We expected communities previously subject to frequent disturbances to be more resistant to further disturbance compared to communities in stable environments, due to stronger selection for species displaying resistance traits. We also expected frequently disturbed communities to display a smaller response to a different type of disturbance because species in frequently disturbed communities were more likely to display traits already adapted to respond to

disturbance compared to communities in stable environments, and often fewer sensitive species are present within frequently disturbed communities.

Materials and methods

To investigate how disturbance type and history affected macroinvertebrate communities, we ran a field experiment between December 2016 and March 2017 in ten streams in the Upper Waimakariri River catchment, on the eastern slopes of the Southern Alps in Canterbury, New Zealand using in-stream channels as experimental units (Supplementary material Appendix 1, Table A1). Our experiment was timed to coincide with stable summer flows, however some streams were subjected to a typical summer flood prior to the experiment. All experimental locations had perennial flow, were 550 - 750 m above sea level, and flowed through tussock grasslands or scrub with some southern beech forest in their headwaters. Fish were present in all sites and had access to channels during colonization.

To test the effect of disturbance history, streams were categorised as either having a history of frequent flooding disturbance or a stable disturbance history (n=5 for each; Supplementary material Appendix 1, Table A1). Categories were based on previously described disturbance histories (Death and Winterbourn 1995, Jellyman et al. 2013), ground-truthed using the Pfankuch river disturbance index (RDI; Pfankuch 1975). The RDI incorporates 15 different visually-estimated characteristics of upper bank, lower bank, and stream bed characteristics to produce an overall score of physical channel stability (Jellyman et al. 2013, Peckarsky et al. 2014) strongly correlated with other measures of bed disturbance (Death and Winterbourn 1994, Jellyman et al. 2013, Peckarsky et al. 2014). By incorporating multiple characteristics of stream morphology, this also provides a measure of disturbance history over time, with high scores indicating more physically

unstable streams. Disturbed and stable streams had significantly different total RDI scores (disturbed: 106; stable: 45; ANOVA $P < 0.001$, $F_{1,8} = 225.8$; Supplementary material Appendix 1, Table A1). Any confounding effect of location was avoided by using disturbed and stable streams interspersed within the upper Waimakariri River catchment.

We used a split-plot design, whereby channels were placed in five stable streams and five frequently disturbed streams (disturbance history ‘plots’), and within each stream, three channels were used to manipulate disturbance type. Treatments of disturbance type were randomly allocated to individual channels within each stream, with one channel retained as an undisturbed control. Disturbance type treatments included rock-rolling to simulate the occurrence of flooding, as well as raising channels to create low-flow conditions. Rock-rolling mimicked a frequent pulse disturbance affecting disturbed streams that causes significant adverse effects on macroinvertebrate communities (Death 2008), but was not commonly experienced in the stable streams used. In contrast, low-flow was chosen as press disturbance that was novel to both frequently disturbed and stable streams. Disturbance type treatments were designed to match the characterisation of either a pulse as a short-term and sharply delineated disturbance, or a press that reaches a constant level that is maintained (Donohue et al. 2016, Lake 2000).

Experimental setup

Channels were installed adjacent to each other, parallel to the direction of flow in a straight run with at least 20 cm of water depth (Supplementary material Appendix 1, Fig. A1). Channels were constructed of half sections of Polyvinyl Chloride pipe, 1.5-m long and 24 cm in diameter, as used by Nyström and McIntosh (2003). For this experiment, channels were uncovered, with only a 20-mm lip and 6-mm stainless-steel mesh covering the downstream end of each channel to prevent substrate being washed out while allowing

macroinvertebrates to disperse freely. Within each channel, open-topped plastic baskets (24 x 12.5 x 6 cm) were used to retain cobble substrate and acted as standardised sampling units. All channels were filled with equal quantities of clean gravel, with gravel particles randomly chosen to ensure an assortment of particle sizes following Death (1996) and left for 21 days following setup to allow macroinvertebrate colonization before disturbance treatments were applied. Based on the known community composition of the streams used by Nyström and McIntosh (2003), the macroinvertebrate communities within channels were assumed to compare favourably to stream communities.

To simulate flooding in the rock-rolling treatment, all substrate particles within the channel were vigorously rolled by hand for four minutes to replicate substrate movement, as done by Nyström and McIntosh (2003). To ensure that rolling was spread equally across the length of each channel, each substrate basket was rolled for 30 seconds, with the remainder of time spread across the cobbles in-between baskets. Rock-rolling was undertaken every four days over the five-week experiment. This duration and frequency of rolling was chosen to increase the chance of observing a response in both frequently disturbed and stable streams. Previous studies in the same catchment using artificial substrate disturbance to replicate the effects of natural disturbance have shown that two minutes of substrate disturbance was enough to displace macroinvertebrates (Nyström and McIntosh 2003) and that macroinvertebrate communities in both stable and frequently disturbed streams are adversely affected by artificial substrate movement (Death 1996). The low-flow treatment involved raising channels out of the water to reduce depth to 2.5 cm to produce the reduced velocity and increased water temperatures characteristic of low-flow conditions (Dewson et al. 2007; Supplementary materials, Table A2), as has been done to investigate the longer term effects of drying (Ledger et al. 2011). It was impossible to replicate all aspects of natural disturbance events like water discolouration prior to a

flood with our treatments. Nevertheless, our aim was to test community responses across contrasting disturbance histories and types, so we used treatments that could be consistently replicated across varied study sites. Moreover, our treatments consistently mimicked the major characteristics of the two disturbance types: bed movement and organism displacement for flooding, and severe reduction in discharge for low flow (Death 2008, Dewson et al. 2007). This is also in line with previous experiments indicating these types of manipulations can adequately capture the effects on aquatic macroinvertebrate communities of both types of disturbance tested (Ledger et al. 2009, Matthaei et al. 1997).

Field sampling

After applying treatments for five weeks, benthic macroinvertebrate communities were sampled by taking substrate baskets from each channel four days following the last disturbance. A randomly selected substrate basket was lifted into a 500- μ m mesh net held immediately downstream, before rinsing the gravel through a 5-mm sieve to remove large gravel particles, with retained macroinvertebrates preserved in 70% ethanol for later processing.

In addition, dispersal out of channels during rock-rolling was measured with drift nets (30 x 15 cm opening, 1-m long, 250- μ m mesh) placed directly behind each channel for the duration of rock-rolling treatment. Water flow through the drift nets (measured using a Marsh-McBirney Flomate Model 2000 Flowmeter), sampling duration and the depth of each net were used to calculate drift density using equation 1 from Allan and Russek (1985).

Physicochemical conditions were measured over the course of the experiment (Supplementary Material 1, Table A2). Water temperature was measured continuously in both the stream and low-flow treatment channel using HOBO (Onset Computer

Corporation) pendant loggers. Dissolved oxygen, as well as pH and specific conductivity were measured in each channel using handheld probes (YSI Ecosense ODO 200 and YSI Pro 1030, respectively).

Laboratory methods

Benthic samples taken from substrate baskets and drift samples taken during rock rolling were rinsed through a 500- μ m sieve, separated from detritus, identified and counted under a dissecting microscope. With the exception of Chironomidae (identified to tribe/sub-class), Oligochaeta (sub-class), Nematoda (phylum) and Platyhelminthes (phylum), macroinvertebrate taxa were identified to genus following: Winterbourn et al. (2000), Smith (2003) and Smith (2003).

Statistical analysis

Community resistance to disturbance was tested using the difference between disturbance type and undisturbed control treatments. Non-metric multidimensional scaling (NMDS) and Bray-Curtis dissimilarity (Faith et al. 1987) were used to test for differences between disturbance history treatments (frequently disturbed and stable), and effects of different disturbance type within disturbance history. Significant differences in community composition were evaluated using a permutational analysis of variance (PERMANOVA, 999 permutations), with permutations restricted to combinations of disturbance history and type within each stream reflecting the split-plot design (Anderson 2001, Warton et al. 2012). Additionally, the absolute Bray-Curtis dissimilarity between the control and each type of disturbance within each stream was used to investigate how far community composition shifted with different types of disturbance (Faith et al. 1987) and tested using split-plot ANOVA. This allowed both the among-block effect of disturbance history, as

well as the within-block effect of disturbance type, and the interaction of disturbance history and type to be tested.

To further elucidate community responses, diversity (calculated as 'effective number of species'; Jost 2006), the relative abundance of snails (*Potamopyrgus* and *Physa* spp.), cased Trichoptera species, and free-living taxa (i.e. lacking cases or shells) were also tested using split-plot ANOVAs. Distinguishing shelled, cased and free-living taxa, provided a coarse measure of how the abundance of mobile and less mobile species changed (Death 1995, Wootton et al. 1996). Community responses were transformed into log-response ratios by calculating the ratio of each disturbance type treatment response relative to the control, and taking the natural log of this within each block (Hedges et al. 1999). The change in the relative abundance for each species group was calculated as the difference in relative abundance between each disturbance type and the control treatment within each stream, where relative abundance was the abundance of a group divided by total abundance.

Finally, a split-plot ANOVA was used to evaluate differences in drift out of channels during rock-rolling. For all analyses, assumptions of normality and homogeneity of variance were tested using the Shapiro-Wilks test and the Levenes' Test respectively and found to be satisfied. Statistical analyses were carried out using R statistical package, version 3.2.5 (R Core Team 2016), with NMDS analyses and permutational analysis of variance carried out using the vegan package (Oksanen et al. 2016).

Results

Habitat conditions and macroinvertebrate community composition were significantly different between streams with a history of flooding compared to those not subject to flooding (Figure 1, PERMANOVA, $F_{1,24}=3.288$, $P=0.003$). Across disturbance histories, water depth was greater in stable streams, while temperature was higher in

frequently disturbed streams and there was no difference in flow velocity (Table A2). In macroinvertebrate communities, *Deleatidium* spp mayflies, Hydrobiosidae and Hydroptilidae caddisflies, and Orthocladiinae fly larvae were most prevalent in frequently disturbed streams, with Oligochaeta and Plecoptera (including *Megaleptoperla* sp. and Notonemouridae) also present. Stable streams were dominated by Trichoptera (especially *Pycnocentrodes* sp.), Orthocladiinae and *Potamopyrgus* snails and also contained *Austrosimulium*, Ostracoda, *Oxythira* and *Deleatidium*. Of taxa not identified to genus, only Chironomidae were important components of communities (55% and 38% of individuals in disturbed and stable communities, respectively). The low-flow treatment caused significant reductions in channel flow velocity and depth, but had no effect on water temperature, and there were no differences between habitat conditions in control and rock-rolling treatment channels (Table A2).

Both rock-rolling and low-flow shifted community composition (Figure 1, PERMANOVA, $F_{2,24}=1.927$, $P=0.012$), but there was no significant interaction between disturbance type and disturbance history for overall composition (PERMANOVA, $F_{2,24}=1.017$, $P=0.417$). When the change in composition between assemblages was investigated using Bray-Curtis dissimilarity, the effect of disturbance type was dependent on disturbance history, indicated by a significant disturbance history by type interaction (Figure 2, Table 1a). In stable streams, the low flow treatment altered community composition more than rock-rolling and produced communities which diverged substantially from control communities, whereas in frequently disturbed streams there was no difference in the distance communities moved in ordination space in response to different disturbance treatments (Figure 2).

Disturbance history and the type of disturbance experienced also drove changes in total invertebrate abundance, diversity, and the abundance of different species groups with

different traits. Firstly, there was an interaction between disturbance type and disturbance history affecting total invertebrate abundance (Table 1b, Figure 3a). In frequently disturbed streams there was no significant effect of either rock-rolling or low-flow disturbance on total abundance (Figure 3a), whereas in stable streams, both rock-rolling and low flow significantly reduced total invertebrate abundance, with low flow having a greater effect (Figure 3a).

In contrast to total abundance, only disturbance type affected diversity, regardless of disturbance history, because rock-rolling decreased diversity in both frequently disturbed and stable streams (Table 1c, Figure 3b). However, when split into species groups based on mobility-related traits – including snails (*Potamopyrgus* and *Physa*), cased Trichoptera species (e.g. *Hudsonema* and *Pycnocentrodes*) and free-living (i.e. lacking cases or shells) taxa – the influence of both disturbance type and history varied (Figure 4). Firstly, the effect of different types of disturbance on the relative abundance of snails was dependent on disturbance history (Table 1d). Snails were not present in frequently disturbed streams, and so could not be affected by further disturbance. In contrast, rock-rolling significantly decreased the abundance of snails in stable streams, while low flow had no significant effect (Figure 6a). The relative abundance of cased Trichoptera spp. were also affected by an interaction between disturbance history and type. Cased Trichoptera significantly decreased in relative abundance following both disturbance treatments in stable streams, whereas in frequently disturbed streams, the relative abundance of cased Trichoptera did not change significantly regardless of disturbance type (Table 1e, Figure 4b). This was likely due to cased Trichoptera either being absent or in very low abundances in frequently disturbed streams. Finally, the relative abundance of free-living taxa was also dependent on an interaction between disturbance history and type because although further disturbance had no effect on the

relative abundance of free-living taxa in frequently disturbed streams, it had a significant positive effect on relative abundance in stable streams regardless of disturbance type (Table 1e, Figure 4c).

The drift of individuals out of channels during disturbance treatments was significantly affected by disturbance type, but not disturbance history (Table 1g, Figure 5). In both frequently disturbed and stable streams, rock-rolling increased the movement of invertebrates out of channels, while low flow significantly decreased invertebrate drift (Figure 5). The change in invertebrate drift relative to the control treatment differed slightly between frequently disturbed and stable streams, with low flow decreasing invertebrate drift significantly in frequently disturbed streams, while rock-rolling significantly increased the movement of invertebrates out of channels in stable streams. However, there was no significant effect of disturbance history on the loss of invertebrates out of channels because the difference in invertebrate drift between disturbance treatments remained constant (Table 1g). Therefore, disturbance type had the strongest influence on the movement of invertebrates in the experiment.

Discussion

Differences in disturbance characteristics experienced by communities (Miller et al. 2011) and the legacies of previous perturbations (Peckarsky et al. 2015, Sylvain et al. 2012) likely alter the effects of disturbance on communities. Thus, developing a more nuanced understanding of how different aspects of disturbance interact is important for understanding how changes in disturbance regimes will alter community composition. Our experiment demonstrated that different aspects of disturbance influence how stream macroinvertebrate communities respond to disturbance. Whether communities in frequently disturbed streams displayed a similar response to further disturbance compared to communities in stable streams was often determined by the type of disturbance.

Community responses to rock-rolling differed little between disturbance histories, but the effects of the low-flow treatment differed between disturbed and stable streams. Specifically, the low flow treatment had greater effects on macroinvertebrate communities in stable streams compared to those in frequently disturbed streams. Therefore, the interactions between the effects of disturbance type and history suggest that the effects of different types of disturbance on community composition are contingent on previously experienced disturbance. Below we outline important aspects of these relationships, starting with effects of disturbance history on community composition.

Across all streams, community composition differed significantly between contrasting disturbance histories, with mobile species such as mayflies most prevalent in frequently disturbed rivers, whereas stable streams were dominated by species protected by shells or cases like snails and cased Trichoptera. Overall, there was a distinct difference in community composition between disturbance histories, as well as significant shifts in composition following disturbance treatments. This aligns with previous work demonstrating that differences in community composition reflect local disturbance history (Gray et al. 2006, Jacobsen and Dangles 2012), due to disturbance filtering out ill-adapted species (Lebrija-Trejos et al. 2010). Except for changes in the relative abundance of free-living mobile invertebrate taxa, all benthic community response metrics were negatively affected by disturbance treatments. Therefore, our findings support the expectation that disturbance exerts strong influence on aquatic communities (Resh et al. 1988), that disturbance shapes community composition by filtering communities (Fattorini and Halle 2004), and that such effects can be evaluated with small-scale experiments such as ours (Ledger et al. 2009, Matthaei et al. 1997).

Our results highlight that disturbance history and the type of disturbance experienced affected community responses differently. Statistically significant interactions

were recorded for most response variables tested, but only a significant main effect of disturbance type influenced Shannon-Wiener diversity. Thus, disturbance type was a key aspect determining whether species were completely removed by disturbance, as observed from the effects of other environmental stressors (Matthaei et al. 2010). Rock-rolling noticeably removed species, indicated by the decline in Shannon-Wiener diversity. By comparison, diversity did not significantly change when communities were subject to the low-flow conditions we imposed. Rock-rolling associated with flooding displaces both macroinvertebrates and resources from the substratum (Death and Zimmermann 2005), removing species unable to remain attached to cobbles or recolonize rapidly (Holomuzki and Biggs 2000). In contrast to rock-rolling, low-flow disturbance likely had little effect on diversity because many species were better adapted to persist when subject to low-flow conditions, or because the low-flow treatment used in the experiment was not severe enough to remove species.

The most common interaction between disturbance history and type occurred because frequently disturbed streams responded to both rock-rolling and low flow similarly, whereas in stable streams responses to low flow were greater than those for rock-rolling. This was evident for both the differences in community composition and the changes in total abundance. Changes in the type and frequency of disturbance experienced previously (i.e. disturbance history) were expected to change which species were filtered out of communities and the harshness of the disturbance filter because disturbance-adapted traits can facilitate species, and therefore community, resistance to disturbance, preventing species from being removed by further disturbance ((Death 1996), Holomuzki and Biggs 2000, Fattorini and Halle 2004). In frequently disturbed communities, original community diversity was lower and species were likely already disturbance-resistant (Scarsbrook and Townsend 1993), potentially explaining their lesser responses to additional disturbance.

The importance of species traits in communities with different disturbance histories in underpinning these different responses to disturbance types was shown by changes in the relative abundance of snails, cased Trichoptera and free-living taxa. There was no significant effect of either disturbance type on the relative abundance of snails in frequently disturbed streams because snails were absent from these streams, while just rock-rolling had a significant negative effect on snails in stable streams. Thus, species with unsuitable traits were already filtered out of disturbed streams, due to being adapted to avoid predation through protective shells rather than being tolerant of disturbance (Wootton et al. 1996). Both types of disturbance investigated adversely affected cased caddisflies, but cased caddisflies declined more in stable streams compared to frequently disturbed streams. However, cased caddisflies were actually rare in frequently disturbed sites, so similar to snails, additional disturbance could not decrease their abundance further. In contrast, the free-living taxa like mayflies which were dominant in frequently disturbed streams were not affected by either disturbance type in frequently disturbed streams, likely due to high dispersal ability associated with their streamlined body shapes (Holomuzki and Biggs 2000). Thus, previously disturbed environments likely contained communities that were already generally resistant to disturbance, which is likely to be a powerful mechanism controlling responses to additional types of disturbance.

Although resistance traits were important, stable streams responding more to low-flow disturbance than frequently disturbed streams suggests that other traits also affected community responses. Dispersal traits enable species to persist within communities following disturbance through recolonization (Datry et al. 2014), and so the supply of colonists influences recovery following disturbance (Catford and Jansson 2014, Datry et al. 2016). In our experiment, low flow had stronger effects in the more diverse stable communities, potentially due to weaker connections with sources of colonists from

reduced water flow (Bogan and Lytle 2011). Moreover, traits contributing to both resistance and resilience responses are affected by previous disturbance history (Lytle and Poff 2004, Bogan et al. 2015), so the dominance of stable communities by less mobile taxa likely reduced community resilience. Thus, disturbance history and the type of disturbance experienced also likely interact to affect how communities respond to disturbance communities by influencing species mobility.

Invertebrate drift samples collected during rock-rolling showed that dispersal out of rolled channels was significantly greater than drift out of low-flow channels in both disturbance histories. Despite considerable drift out of channels subject to rock-rolling, the effect of rock-rolling on total macroinvertebrate abundance and community dissimilarity for benthic communities was smaller than the effect of low flow in stable streams. This implied that communities from both frequently disturbed and stable streams subjected to rock-rolling recovered during the interval between rock-rolling and benthic communities being sampled, whereas stable stream communities did not recover from low flow. Rock-rolling was a pulse disturbance occurring as multiple discrete events, providing the opportunity for communities to recover between disturbances through recolonization by mobile species (Donohue et al. 2016). By comparison, low flow is a press disturbance which reduces recolonization potential through the reduction of water flow. Furthermore, rapid recolonization of communities within instream channels has been demonstrated for less intense rock-rolling disturbances (Nyström and McIntosh 2003), with greater recolonization likely in stable environments due to greater availability of colonists than in frequently disturbed environments (Chase 2003). Therefore, while we did not explicitly quantify community resilience, it appears that disturbance history moderated the effect of disturbance type by influencing community resilience through the availability of new colonists and the dispersal traits of species present.

The interaction of disturbance history and type, especially that affecting overall community composition measured by Bray-Curtis distance, is consistent with both disturbance tolerant and mobility traits contributing to community responses to disturbance through enabling species to withstand disturbance events and recolonize following disturbance (Catford and Jansson 2014, Vorste et al. 2016). These mechanisms operated together because when communities lacked resistance traits, as in stable streams, community structure was most affected by a type of disturbance, low flow, which hindered recolonization. Likewise, recolonization appeared less essential for communities with resistance traits in the disturbed streams, because the effect of disturbance was less and fewer species were lost. This interplay of different responses to disturbance corresponds to those observed in other ecosystem types, including grassland and intertidal algal communities, where resilience becomes a key response once the capacity of species to resist disturbance is exhausted (Allison 2004, Hoover et al. 2014). Thus, disturbance history moderates the effect of disturbance type by driving the development of disturbance resistance traits and traits which are likely to affect resilience such as increased mobility.

The involvement of both resistance traits and resilience responses through species mobility reflects the multiple interrelated components of overall community stability (Donohue et al. 2013). Therefore, the nuances of how different aspects of disturbance influences communities are important for understanding how historical context influences the effects of disturbance on communities, and thus how changes in disturbance regime might alter communities. In the context of global change, the role of disturbance history in moderating the effect of disturbance type on freshwater macroinvertebrates provides an important insight into the role of different aspects of disturbance in shaping communities and so whether different communities are more vulnerable to changes in disturbances. Our findings suggest important disturbance responses are associated with dispersal ability and

mobility by allowing species that are not disturbance-adapted to respond to disturbance and so facilitates a degree of resilience. This drove the interaction between disturbance history and type, because non-disturbance adapted communities were still equally able to respond to disturbance provided species mobility allowed dispersal into disturbed areas (i.e., not impeded by low flow). While both resistance and resilience responses were evident in our experiment, we would expect that the importance of resistance responses increases with more severe drying disturbance as habitat connectivity declines and dispersal benefit of greater mobility decreases as streams dry up (Bogan and Lytle 2011).

 Making predications for how vulnerable communities are to new or novel disturbances is complicated by the consideration of disturbance magnitude and duration (Donohue et al. 2016), as well as spatial scale (Matthaei et al. 1997). The effects of disturbance history may also be more pronounced in ecosystems with predictable disturbance regimes, because the highly variable disturbance regimes of New Zealand freshwater ecosystems drives selection for resilience traits and limits the evolution of specialized disturbance resistance traits (Clausen and Biggs 2000, Wissinger et al. 2009). This probably means that our results emphasize the importance of resilience for community responses to disturbance and may understate the importance of resistance traits for responding to specific disturbance types. Therefore, disturbance history will likely provide valuable insight into how vulnerable communities are to changes in disturbance patterns arising from global change. Moreover, that communities in stable environments are more vulnerable to changes in a region where the regional species pool is characterised by high resilience like New Zealand suggests that general adaptation to disturbance alone may be insufficient to respond to shifting disturbance regimes. Thus, environments with less history of disturbance will be more vulnerable to changes in disturbance regimes and

496 novel disturbances, and these environments may warrant greater management effort to
497 limit the effects of global change.

498

Declarations

Funding: The study was funded by the University of Canterbury and a sub-contract from NIWA's Sustainable Water Allocation Program of work.

Conflicts of interest: The authors declare that they have no conflicts of interest.

Data availability: The data presented in this paper will be made available on Dryad when accepted for publication.

References

- Allan, J. D. and Russek, E. 1985. The quantification of stream drift. - Canadian Journal of Fisheries and Aquatic Sciences 42: 210-215.
- Allison, G. 2004. The influence of species diversity and stress intensity on community resistance and resilience. - Ecological Monographs 74: 117-134.
- Allison, S. D. and Martiny, J. B. 2008. Resistance, resilience, and redundancy in microbial communities. - Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America 105: 11512-11519.
- Anderson, M. J. 2001. A new method for non-parametric multivariate analysis of variance. - Austral Ecology 26: 32-46.
- Bogan, M. T., et al. 2015. Resistance and resilience of invertebrate communities to seasonal and suprasedational drought in arid-land headwater streams. - Freshwater Biology 60: 2547-2558.
- Bogan, M. T. and Lytle, D. A. 2011. Severe drought drives novel community trajectories in desert stream pools. - Freshwater Biology 56: 2070-2081.
- Catford, J. A. and Jansson, R. 2014. Drowned, buried and carried away: effects of plant traits on the distribution of native and alien species in riparian ecosystems. - New Phytologist 204: 19-36.

523 Chase, J. M. 2003. Community assembly: When should history matter? - *Oecologia* 136:
524 489-498.

525 Chase, J. M. 2007. Drought mediates the importance of stochastic community assembly. -
526 *Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United States of America*
527 104: 17430-17434.

528 Clausen, B. and Biggs, B. J. F. 2000. Flow variables for ecological studies in temperate
529 streams: groupings based on covariance. - *Journal of Hydrology* 237: 184-197.

530 Cornwell, W. K. and Ackerly, D. D. 2009. Community assembly and shifts in plant trait
531 distributions across an environmental gradient in coastal California. - *Ecological*
532 *Monographs* 79: 109-126.

533 Datry, T., et al. 2014. Broad-scale patterns of invertebrate richness and community
534 composition in temporary rivers: effects of flow intermittence. - *Ecography* 37: 94-
535 104.

536 Datry, T., et al. 2016. Metacommunity patterns across three Neotropical catchments with
537 varying environmental harshness. - *Freshwater Biology* 61: 277-292.

538 Death, R. 1995. Spatial patterns in benthic invertebrate community structure: products of
539 habitat stability or are they habitat specific? - *Freshwater Biology* 33: 455-467.

540 Death, R. 1996. The effect of patch disturbance on stream invertebrate community
541 structure: the influence of disturbance history. - *Oecologia* 108: 567-576.

542 Death, R. G. 1996. Predicting the impacts of biological and physical disturbances: Does
543 theoretical ecology hold any answers? - *New Zealand Journal of Ecology*: 17-26.

544 Death, R. G. 2008. The effect of floods on aquatic invertebrate communities. - In:
545 Lancaster, J. and Briers, R. A. (eds.), *Aquatic insects : challenges to populations :*
546 *proceedings of the Royal Entomological Society's 24th symposium.* CAB
547 International, pp. 103-121.

548 Death, R. G. and Winterbourn, M. J. 1994. The measurement of environmental stability in
549 streams: a multivariate approach. - *Journal of the North American Benthological*
550 *Society* 13: 125-139.

551 Death, R. G. and Winterbourn, M. J. 1995. Diversity patterns in stream benthic
552 invertebrate communities: the influence of habitat stability. - *Ecology* 76: 1446-
553 1460.

554 Death, R. G. and Zimmermann, E. M. 2005. Interaction between disturbance and primary
555 productivity in determining stream invertebrate diversity. - *Oikos* 111: 392-402.

556 Dewson, Z. S., et al. 2007. A review of the consequences of decreased flow for instream
557 habitat and macroinvertebrates. - *Journal of the North American Benthological*
558 *Society* 26: 401-415.

559 Didham, R. K., et al. 2005. Are systems with strong underlying abiotic regimes more likely
560 to exhibit alternative stable states? - *Oikos* 110: 409-416.

561 Donohue, I., et al. 2016. Navigating the complexity of ecological stability. - *Ecology*
562 *Letters* 19: 1172-1185.

563 Donohue, I., et al. 2013. On the dimensionality of ecological stability. - *Ecology Letters*
564 16: 421-429.

565 Faith, D. P., et al. 1987. Compositional dissimilarity as a robust measure of ecological
566 distance. - *Vegetatio* 69: 57-68.

567 Fattorini, M. and Halle, S. 2004. The dynamic environmental filter model: How do
568 filtering effects changes in assembling communities after disturbance. - In:
569 Temperton, V. M., et al. (eds.), *Assembly rules and restoration ecology: Bridging*
570 *the gap between theory and practice*. Island Press, pp. 96-114.

571 Glasby, T. M. and Underwood, A. J. 1996. Sampling to differentiate between pulse and
572 press perturbations. - *Environmental Monitoring and Assessment* 42: 241-252.

573 Gray, D., et al. 2006. Spatial biodiversity patterns in a large New Zealand braided river. -
574 New Zealand Journal of Marine and Freshwater Research 40: 631-642.

575 Hedges, L. V., et al. 1999. The meta-analysis of response ratios in experimental ecology. -
576 Ecology 80: 1150-1156.

577 Holomuzki, J. R. and Biggs, B. J. F. 2000. Taxon-specific responses to high-flow
578 disturbance in streams: implications for population persistence. - Journal of the
579 North American Benthological Society 19: 670-679.

580 Hoover, D. L., et al. 2014. Resistance and resilience of a grassland ecosystem to climate
581 extremes. - Ecology 95: 2646-2656.

582 IPCC. 2014. Climate change 2014: Synthesis report. Contribution of working groups I, II
583 and III to the fifth assessment report of the Intergovernmental Panel on Climate
584 Change. - In: Core Writing Team, R. K. P. a. L. A. M. e. (ed.). - IPCC, p. 151 pp.

585 Jacobsen, D. and Dangles, O. 2012. Environmental harshness and global richness patterns
586 in glacier-fed streams. - Global Ecology and Biogeography 21: 647-656.

587 Jellyman, P. G., et al. 2013. Quantifying the direct and indirect effects of flow-related
588 disturbance on stream fish assemblages. - Freshwater Biology 58: 2614-2631.

589 Jost, L. 2006. Entropy and diversity. - Oikos 113: 363-375.

590 Lake, P. S. 2000. Disturbance, patchiness, and diversity in streams. - Journal of the North
591 American Benthological Society 19: 573-592.

592 Lake, P. S. 2013. Resistance, resilience and restoration. - Ecological Management &
593 Restoration 14: 20-24.

594 Lebrija-Trejos, E., et al. 2010. Functional traits and environmental filtering drive
595 community assembly in a species-rich tropical system. - Ecology 91: 386-398.

596 Ledger, M., et al. 2009. Realism of model ecosystems: an evaluation of physicochemistry
 597 and macroinvertebrate assemblages in artificial streams. - *Hydrobiologia* 617: 91-
 598 99.

599 Ledger, M. E., et al. 2011. Impact of simulated drought on ecosystem biomass production:
 600 an experimental test in stream mesocosms. - *Global Change Biology* 17: 2288-
 601 2297.

602 Ledger, M. E. and Milner, A. M. 2015. Extreme events in running waters. - *Freshwater*
 603 *Biology* 60: 2455-2460.

604 Lepori, F. and Malmqvist, B. 2009. Deterministic control on community assembly peaks
 605 at intermediate levels of disturbance. - *Oikos* 118: 471-479.

606 Lytle, D. A., et al. 2008. Evolution of aquatic insect behaviours across a gradient of
 607 disturbance predictability. - *Proceedings of the Royal Society of London B:*
 608 *Biological Sciences* 275: 453-462.

609 Lytle, D. A. and Poff, N. L. 2004. Adaptation to natural flow regimes. - *Trends in Ecology*
 610 *& Evolution* 19: 94-100.

611 Mantyka-Pringle, C. S., et al. 2014. Understanding and predicting the combined effects of
 612 climate change and land-use change on freshwater macroinvertebrates and fish. -
 613 *Journal of Applied Ecology* 51: 572-581.

614 Matthaei, C., et al. 1997. Response of benthic invertebrates to natural versus experimental
 615 disturbance in a Swiss prealpine river. - *Freshwater Biology* 37: 61-77.

616 Matthaei, C. D., et al. 2010. Multiple stressors in agricultural streams: interactions among
 617 sediment addition, nutrient enrichment and water abstraction. - *Journal of Applied*
 618 *Ecology* 47: 639-649.

619 McCabe, D. J. and Gotelli, N. J. 2000. Effects of disturbance frequency, intensity, and area
 620 on assemblages of stream macroinvertebrates. - *Oecologia* 124: 270-279.

621 Menge, B. A. and Sutherland, J. P. 1987. Community regulation: Variation in disturbance,
 622 competition, and predation in relation to environmental stress and recruitment. -
 623 The American Naturalist 130: 730-757.

624 Miller, A. D., et al. 2011. How frequency and intensity shape diversity–disturbance
 625 relationships. - Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences of the United
 626 States of America 108: 5643-5648.

627 Nimmo, D. G., et al. 2015. Vive la résistance: reviving resistance for 21st century
 628 conservation. - Trends in Ecology & Evolution 30: 516-523.

629 Nyström, P. and McIntosh, A. R. 2003. Are impacts of an exotic predator on a stream food
 630 web influenced by disturbance history? - Oecologia 136: 279-288.

631 Occhipinti-Ambrogi, A. 2007. Global change and marine communities: Alien species and
 632 climate change. - Marine Pollution Bulletin 55: 342-352.

633 Oki, T. and Kanae, S. 2006. Global hydrological cycles and world water resources. -
 634 Science 313: 1068-1072.

635 Oksanen, J., et al. 2016. vegan: Community Ecology Package.. R package version 2.4-1.
 636 <https://CRAN.R-project.org/package=vegan>. -.

637 Parmesan, C. 2006. Ecological and evolutionary responses to recent climate change. -
 638 Annual Review of Ecology, Evolution, and Systematics 37: 637-669.

639 Peckarsky, B. L., et al. 2015. Disturbance legacies and nutrient limitation influence
 640 interactions between grazers and algae in high elevation streams. - Ecosphere 6: 1-
 641 15.

642 Peckarsky, B. L., et al. 2014. Characterizing disturbance regimes of mountain streams. -
 643 Freshwater Science 33: 716-730.

644 Pfankuch, D. J. 1975. Stream reach inventory and channel stability evaluation. - United
 645 States Department of Agriculture Forest Service, Northern Region.

646 Piggott, J. J., et al. 2012. Multiple stressors in agricultural streams: a mesocosm study of
 647 interactions among raised water temperature, sediment addition and nutrient
 648 enrichment. - PloS one 7: e49873.

649 Pimm, S. L. 1984. The complexity and stability of ecosystems. - Nature 307: 321.

650 Poff, N. L. 1997. Landscape filters and species traits: towards mechanistic understanding
 651 and prediction in stream ecology. - Journal of the north american Benthological
 652 society: 391-409.

653 R Core Team. 2016. R: A language and environment for statistical computing. - R
 654 Foundation for Statistical Computing.

655 Rahmstorf, S. and Coumou, D. 2011. Increase of extreme events in a warming world. -
 656 Proceedings of the National Academy of Sciences 108: 17905-17909.

657 Resh, V. H., et al. 1988. The role of disturbance in stream ecology. - Journal of the North
 658 American Benthological Society 7: 433-455.

659 Ricklefs, R. E. 2004. A comprehensive framework for global patterns in biodiversity. -
 660 Ecology Letters 7: 1-15.

661 Robson, B. J., et al. 2011. Why life history information matters: drought refuges and
 662 macroinvertebrate persistence in non-perennial streams subject to a drier climate. -
 663 Marine and Freshwater Research 62: 801-810.

664 Scarsbrook, M. R. and Townsend, C. R. 1993. Stream community structure in relation to
 665 spatial and temporal variation: a habitat templet study of two contrasting New
 666 Zealand streams. - Freshwater biology 29: 395-410.

667 Seidl, R., et al. 2016. Searching for resilience: addressing the impacts of changing
 668 disturbance regimes on forest ecosystem services. - Journal of Applied Ecology 53:
 669 120-129.

670 Smith, B. J. 2003. Quick guide to the MCI non-cased Trichoptera (excluding
671 Hydrobiosidae). - NIWA.

672 Smith, B. J. 2003. Quick guide to the MCI non-Chironomidae Diptera. - NIWA.

673 Sylvain, P., et al. 2012. Temporal coincidence of environmental stress events modulates
674 predation rates. - Ecology Letters 15: 680-688.

675 Thompson, R. and Townsend, C. 2006. A Truce with Neutral Theory: local deterministic
676 factors, species traits and dispersal limitation together determine patterns of
677 diversity in stream invertebrates. - Journal of Animal Ecology 75: 476-484.

678 Tockner, K., et al. 2010. Multiple stressors in coupled river–floodplain ecosystems. -
679 Freshwater Biology 55: 135-151.

680 Townsend, C., et al. 1997. Species traits in relation to temporal and spatial heterogeneity in
681 streams: a test of habitat templet theory. - Freshwater Biology 37: 367-387.

682 Townsend, C. R. and Hildrew, A. G. 1994. Species traits in relation to a habitat templet for
683 river systems. - Freshwater Biology 31: 265-275.

684 Vinebrooke, R. D., et al. 2004. Impacts of multiple stressors on biodiversity and ecosystem
685 functioning: the role of species co-tolerance. - Oikos 104: 451-457.

686 Vorste, R. V., et al. 2016. Invertebrate communities in gravel-bed, braided rivers are
687 highly resilient to flow intermittence. - Freshwater Science 35: 164-177.

688 Ward, J. 1998. Riverine landscapes: biodiversity patterns, disturbance regimes, and aquatic
689 conservation. - Biological conservation 83: 269-278.

690 Warton, D. I., et al. 2012. Distance-based multivariate analyses confound location and
691 dispersion effects. - Methods in Ecology and Evolution 3: 89-101.

692 Wellborn, G. A., et al. 1996. Mechanisms creating community structure across a
693 freshwater habitat gradient. - Annual Review of Ecology and Systematics 27: 337-
694 363.

695 Winterbourn, M. J., et al. 2000. Guide to the aquatic insects of New Zealand. - Bulletin of
696 the Entomological Society of New Zealand 6.

697 Wissinger, S. A., et al. 2009. Absence of species replacements between permanent and
698 temporary lentic communities in New Zealand. - Journal of the North American
699 Benthological Society 28: 12-23.

700 Wootton, J. T., et al. 1996. Effects of disturbance on river food webs. - Science 273: 1558-
701 1561.

702

Table 1: Results of ANOVAs to test effects of disturbance history and disturbance type for Bray-Curtis community dissimilarity (a), total invertebrate abundance (b), Shannon-Weiner diversity (c), relative abundance of snails (d), relative abundance of cased Trichoptera (e), relative abundance of free-living taxa (f) and drift during rock-rolling (g).

	d.f.	SS	F	P
a) Bray-Curtis community dissimilarity				
History	1	0.03	0.69	0.43
Residual (sites)	8	0.33		
Type	1	0.04	4.92	0.057
History*type	1	0.99	11.42	0.009
Residual (within sites)	8	0.07		
b) Total invertebrate abundance				
History	1	5.21	2.17	0.179
Residual (sites)	8	0.33		
Type	1	0.86	3.33	0.105
History*type	1	2.01	7.82	0.023
Residual (within sites)	8	0.04		
c) Effective number of species				
History	1	0.24	1.83	0.213
Residual (sites)	8	1.06		
Type	1	0.75	9.53	0.015
History*type	1	0.01	0.13	0.725
Residual (within sites)	8	0.63		
d) Snails				
History	1	0.01	0.44	0.525
Residual (sites)	8	0.08		
Type	1	0.02	10.76	0.011
History*type	1	0.02	10.17	0.013
Residual (within sites)	8	0.02		
e) Cased Trichoptera				
History	1	0.18	9.59	0.014
Residual (sites)	8	0.15		
Type	1	0.01	0.82	0.390
History*type	1	0.02	1.13	0.319
Residual (within sites)	8	0.11		
f) Free-living taxa				
History	1	0.24	14.37	0.005
Residual (sites)	8	0.14		
Type	1	0.01	0.12	0.738
History*type	1	0.07	5.68	0.044
Residual (within sites)	8	0.10		
g) Rock-rolling drift				
History	1	5.46	2.86	0.129
Residual (sites)	8	15.29		
Type	1	54.66	6.99	0.01
History*type	1	0.54	0.48	0.51
Residual (within sites)	8	22.62		

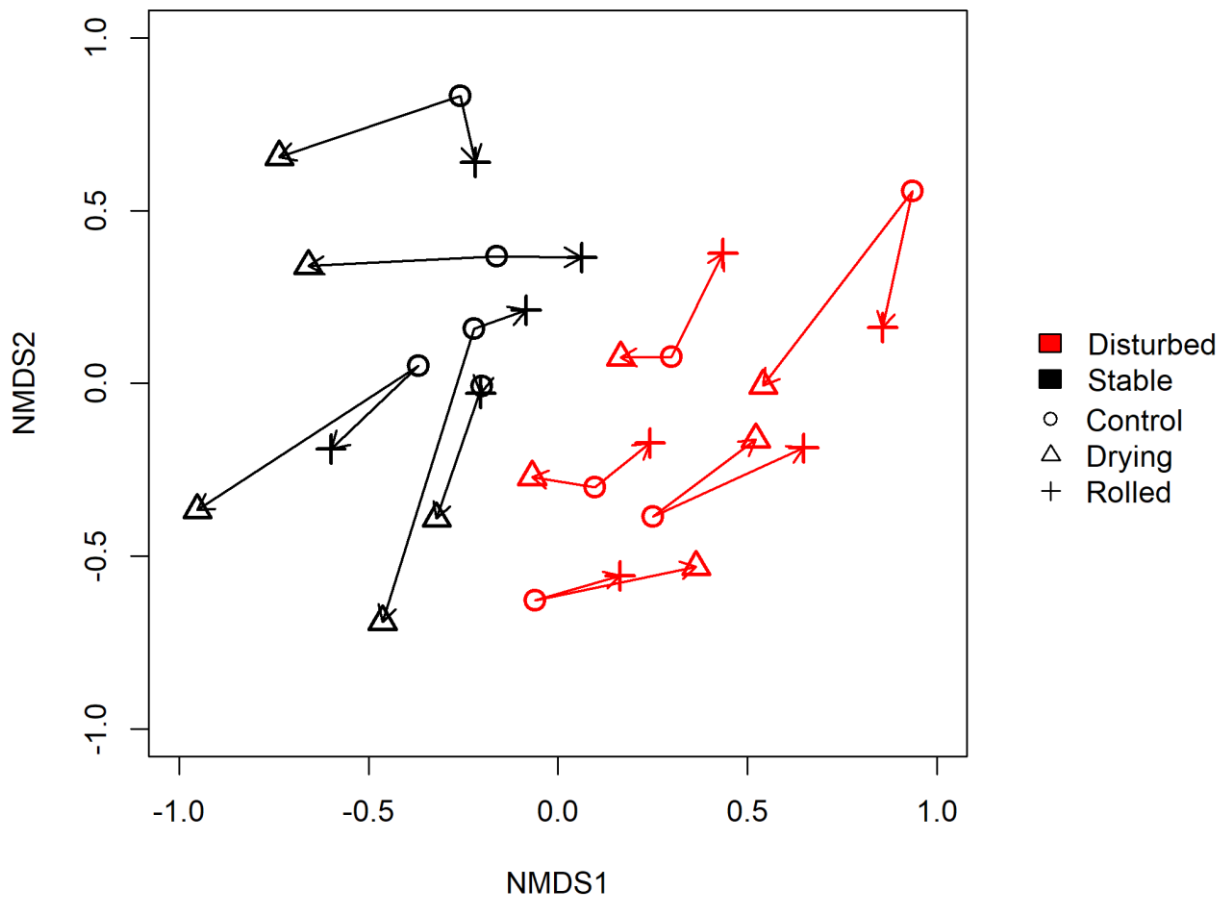


Figure 1: Non-metric multidimensional scaling plot of Bray-Curtis dissimilarity in stream macroinvertebrate assemblages across channels in streams with different disturbance histories (colours) subject to different types of disturbance (symbols). Points represent assemblages in individual channels, with arrows connecting control channels (circles) with channels subject to low-flow (triangles) and rock-rolling (plus) disturbances within the same stream.

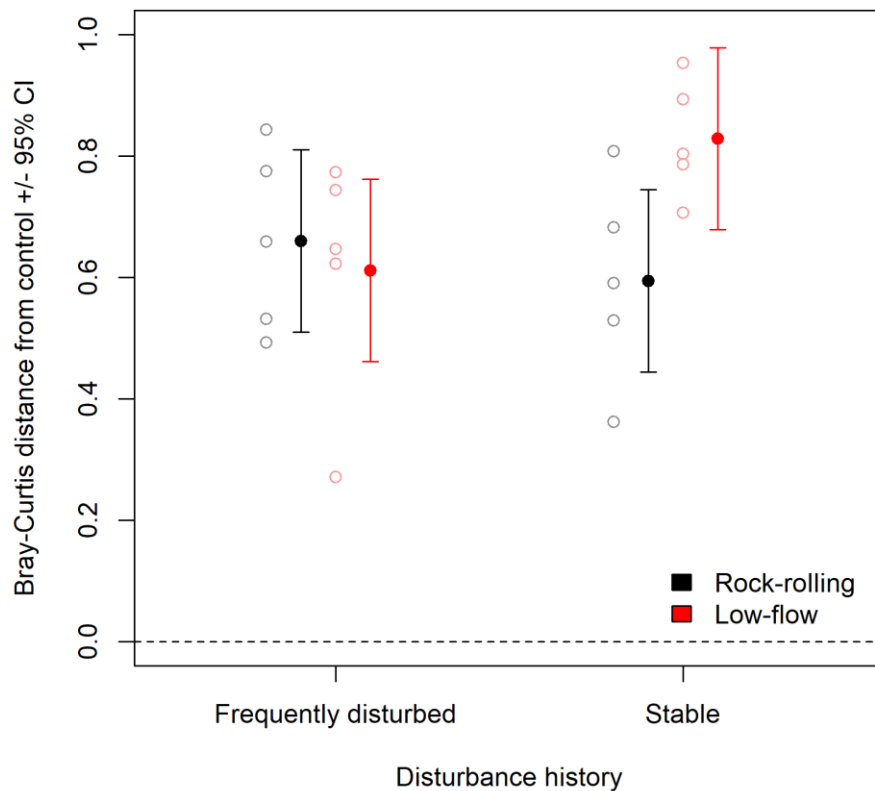


Figure 2: Mean Bray-Curtis dissimilarity of macro-invertebrate communities between control channels and channels subject to different types of disturbance for each category of disturbance history ($\pm 95\%$ CI). Black points indicate the effects of rock-rolling, while red points indicate the effects of low-flow disturbance and open points indicate raw values from each replicate. The dashed zero line represents the control treatment, and therefore any 95% CI's overlapping the dashed line show a non-significant effect size.

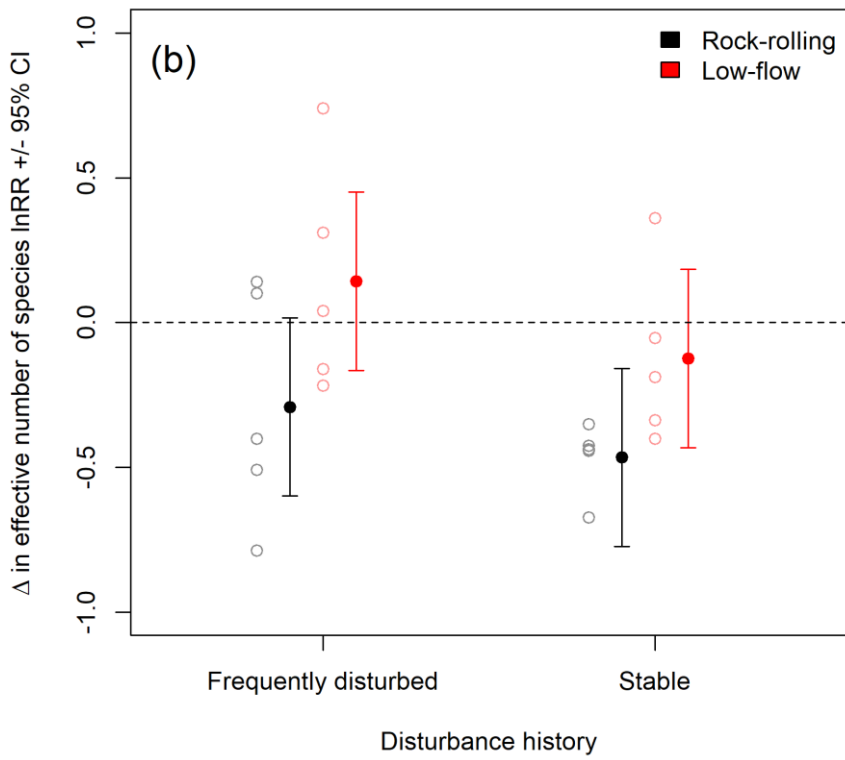
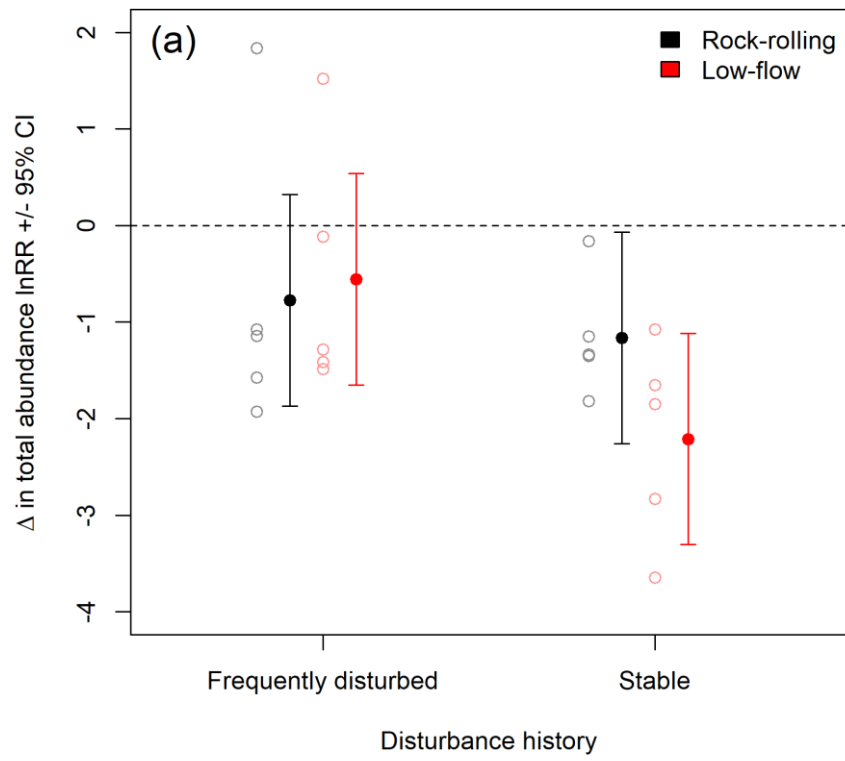


Figure 3: Mean \log_e response ratios of the difference in (a) total macroinvertebrate abundance and (b) the effective species diversity of macroinvertebrate communities, between control channels and channels subject to different types of disturbance for each category of disturbance history ($\pm 95\%$ CI). Black points indicate the effects of rock-rolling, while red points indicate the effects of low-flow disturbance and open points indicate raw values from each replicate. The dashed zero line represents the control treatment, and therefore any 95% CIs overlapping the dashed line show a non-significant effect size.

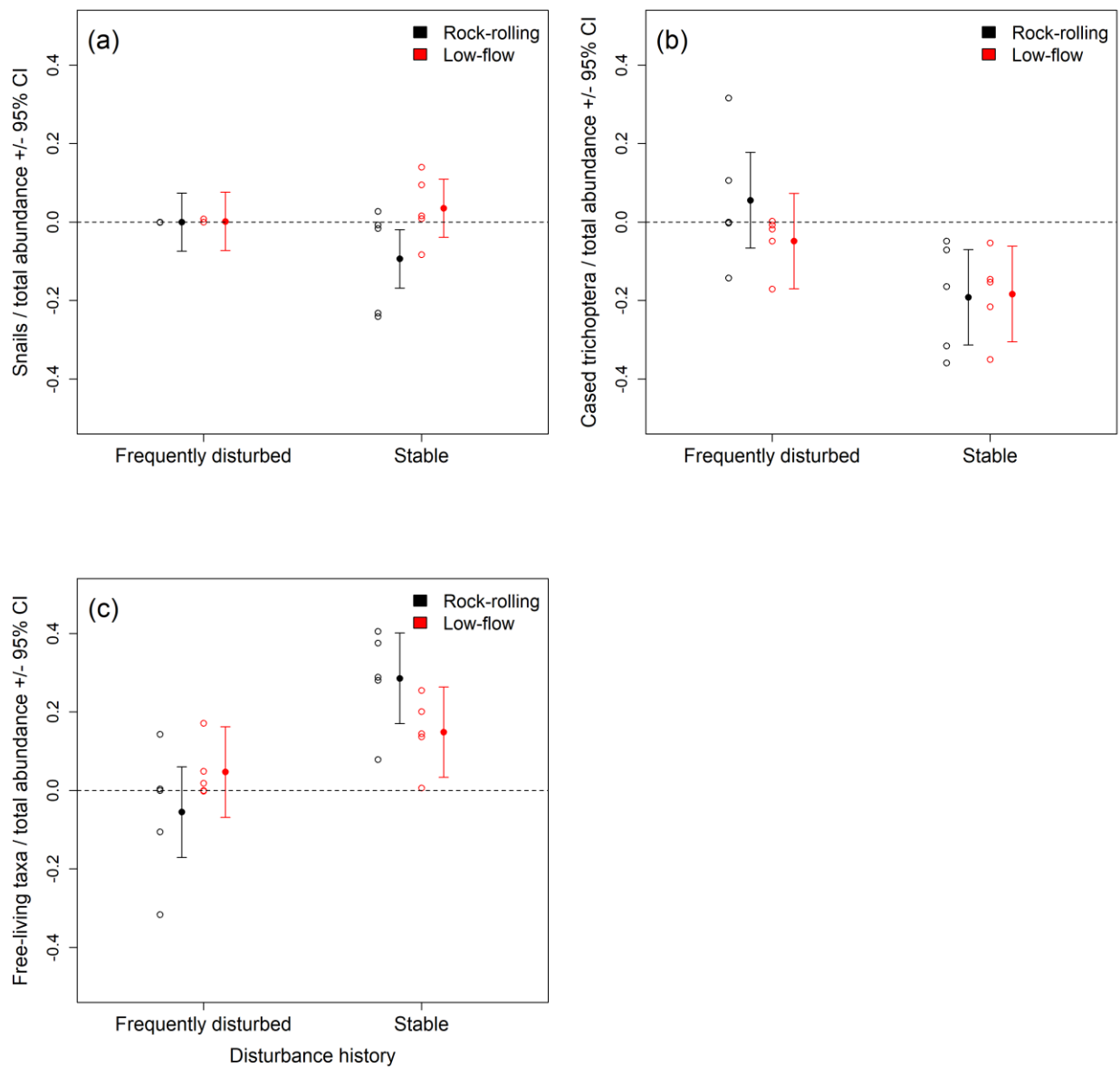


Figure 4: Changes in the relative abundance of (A) snails, (B) cased Trichoptera and (C) free-living taxa with each disturbance type for each category of disturbance history ($\pm 95\%$ CI). This was calculated as the difference in the proportion of total invertebrate abundance made up by each group between the control and each disturbance treatment, with axes multiplied by -1 so directions of change corresponded to the \log_e response ratios presented in other figures. Black points indicate the effects of rock-rolling, while red points indicate the effects of low-flow disturbance and open points indicate raw values from each replicate. The dashed zero line represents the control treatment, and therefore any 95% CIs overlapping the dash line show a non-significant effect size.

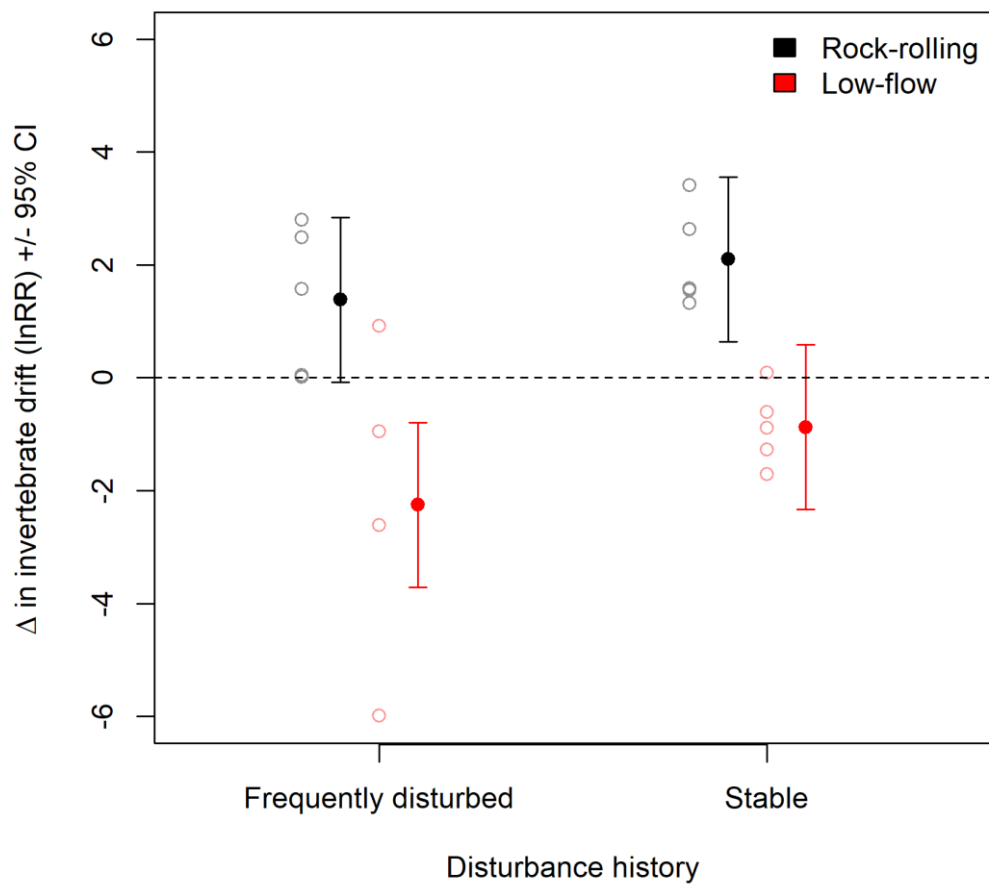


Figure 5: Mean \log_e response ratios of the difference in invertebrate drift out of channels between control channels and channels subject to different types of disturbance during rock-rolling for each category of disturbance history ($\pm 95\%$ CI). Black points indicate the effects of rock-rolling, while red points indicate the effects of low-flow disturbance and open points indicate raw values from each replicate. The dashed zero line represents the control treatment, and therefore any 95% CI's overlapping the dash line show a non-significant effect size.